

# Introduction to Nuclear and Particle Physics - 8.701 Lecture 1 Introduction

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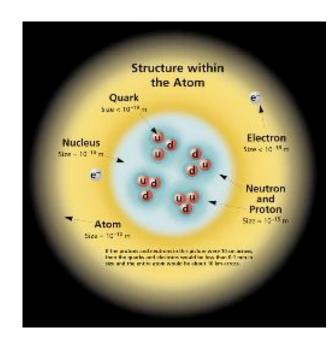


## Outline

Experimental aspects in particle physics

Basic ingredients of particle physics

Definition: Nuclear and Particle Physics



Units in particle physics

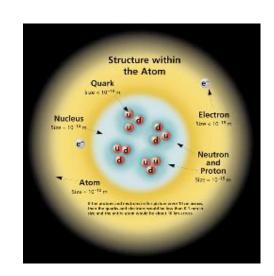
■ Time travel in the particle physics world

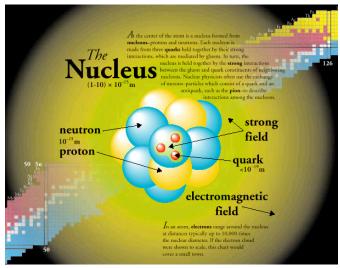
■ Summary



## Definition: Nuclear and Particle Physics

- What is matter made of?
  - This questions has a long tradition in mankind and finds its first attempts to come up with an answer in the Greek natural philosophy
  - However, real experimental work on the structure of matter did not start until the end of the 19th century with the discovery of radiation by Bequerrel in 1896 besides the work by Marie and Pierre Curie (The 1903 Nobel prize in physics was awarded to Bequerel, Marie and Pierre Curie)
  - Series of experiments led to our current understanding: scattering experiments and spectroscopy
  - Theoretical framework: Theory of relativity and quantum mechanics:
     Quantum Field Theory
- The domain of nuclear and particle physics
  - Nuclear physics: Physics of many-body systems of strongly interacting matter (properties, structure, force and reactions)
  - Particle physics: Physics of elementary particles (quarks and leptons) and fundamental fields/interactions (electromagnetic, strong and weak interactions and gravitation)







## Basic ingredients of Particle Physics

- The Standard Model (Building blocks of matter)
  - Quarks and leptons: Elementary particles known today
    - Quarks: Fermions (spin 1/2 particles)
    - Leptons: Fermions (spin 1/2 particles)
  - Electrons and neutrinos (Released for example in radioactive beta-decay) are members of the lepton family
  - Atoms consist of: Nucleus (Protons and neutrons) and electrons
  - Protons and neutrons consist of: Quarks
     Generally: Hadrons = Baryons (3 quark states) + Mesons (2 quark states)

	Baryor	q and . ns are ferm about 120	ionic hadr	ons.	199
Symbol	Name	Quark content	Electric charge	Mass GeV/c <sup>2</sup>	Spin
р	proton	uud	1.	0.938	1/2
p	anti- proton	ūūd	-1	0.938	1/2
n	neutron	udd	0	0.940	1/2
Λ	lambda	uds	0	1.116	1/2
$\Omega^{-}$	omega	SSS	-1	1.672	3/2

F	ERMI	ONS	matter constituents spin = 1/2, 3/2, 5/2,										
Leptor	15 spin	= 1/2	Quar	k <b>s</b> spin	=:1/2;								
Flavor	Mass GeV/c²	Electric charge	Flavor	Approx.									
Pe electron neutrino  electron	<1×10 <sup>-8</sup> 0.000511	0 -1	U up d down	0.003	2/3 -1/3								
μ muon μ neutrino μ muon	<0.0002 0.106	0 -1	C charm S strange	1.3 0.1	2/3 -1/3								
P <sub>T</sub> tau neutrino 7 tau	<0.02 1.7771	0 -1	t top b bottom	175 4.3	2/3 -1/3								

19		Mesor ons are bos about 140	onic hadro		
Symbol	Name	Quark content	Electric charge	Mass GeV/c <sup>2</sup>	Spin
$\pi^+$	pion	ud	+1	0.140	0
K-	kaon	sū	-1	0.494	0
$ ho^+$ B $^0$	rho	ud	+1	0.770	1
B <sup>0</sup>	B-zero	db	0	5.279	0
$\eta_{c}$	eta-c	cc	0	2 .980	0



# Basic ingredients of Particle Physics

- The Standard Model (Interactions among building blocks of matter)
  - Strong, electromagnetic and weak interactions between fermions mediated by gauge bosons
  - Gauge theories are crucial in description of SM interactions:
    - Dirac Lagrangian: Free relativistic spin 1/2 particle

$$\mathcal{L} = i\bar{\psi}\gamma^{\mu}\partial_{\mu}\psi - m\bar{\psi}\psi$$

■ Demand local gauge invariance of Dirac Lagrangian (Example here:  $U(1) \Rightarrow QED$ ):

$$\psi(x) \to e^{i\alpha(x)}\psi(x)$$

 Local gauge invariance (U(1), SU(2) or SU(3) symmetries) introduces SM gauge fields

	BOS	ONS	force carr spin = 0,		
Unified Ele	ctroweak :	pin = 1	Strong	(color) sp	in = 1
Namo	Mass GeV/c <sup>2</sup>	Electric charge	Name	Mass GeV/c <sup>2</sup>	Electric charge
γ photon	0	a	g gluon	0	0
W-	80.4	-1			
W+	80.4	+1			
Z <sup>0</sup>	91.187	0			

$$\mathcal{L} = i\bar{\psi}\gamma^{\mu}D_{\mu}\psi - m\bar{\psi}\psi$$

$$D_{\mu} \equiv \partial_{\mu} - ieA_{\mu}$$
$$A_{\mu} \to A_{\mu} + \frac{1}{e} \cdot \partial_{\mu}\alpha$$



# Basic ingredients of Particle Physics

■ The Standard Model (Interactions among building blocks of matter)

PROPERTIES	OF THE	INTERAC	TIONS
Property	Gravitational	Stro Fundamental	ong Residual
Acts on:	Mass – Energy	Color Charge	See Residual Strong Interaction Note
Particles experiencing:	All	Quarks, Gluons	Hadrons
Particles mediating:	Graviton (not yet observed)	Gluons	Mesons
Strength relative to electromag   10 <sup>-18</sup> m   for two u quarks at:   3×10 <sup>-17</sup> m   for two protons in nucleus	10 <sup>-41</sup> 10 <sup>-41</sup> 10 <sup>-36</sup>	Not applicable to quarks 20	
Interaction Property	Weak (Elect	Electromagn roweak)	netic
Acts on:	Flavor	Electric Charg	ge
Particles experiencing:	Quarks, Leptons	Electrically char	rged
Particles mediating:	W+ W- Z <sup>0</sup>	γ	
Strength relative to electromag  10 <sup>-18</sup> m for two u quarks at:  3×10 <sup>-17</sup> m	0.8 10 <sup>-4</sup>	1	
for two protons in nucleus	10 <sup>-7</sup>	1	



## Units in Particle Physics

#### Units of energy

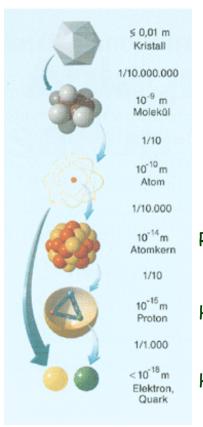
- Elementary particles are so small that the normal mechanical units are inconvenient. The unit of electron volt (eV) was therefore introduced: The energy which an electron acquires when accelerated through a potential difference of 1 Volt  $\Rightarrow$  1eV = 1.602•10<sup>-19</sup>J
- Typical energies: keV (nuclear physics), MeV and GeV (particle physics)
- The mass of the proton is roughly 1GeV/c (0.938GeV/c²)
- Units cross-section
  - Cross-section (Unit: area) are often expressed in barns: 1barn =  $1b = 10^{-24}$  cm<sup>2</sup>
- Natural units
  - Two fundamental constants:  $h = h/2\pi = 1.055 \cdot 10^{-34}$  Js and  $c = 2.998 \cdot 10^8$  m/s
  - It is convenient to use a system of units in which  $\hbar$  is one unit of action (ML<sup>2</sup>/T) and c is one unit of velocity (L/T). Our system of units is then completely defined if we specify for example our energy unit (ML<sup>2</sup>/T<sup>2</sup>).
  - By choosing units with  $\hbar=c=1$ , it becomes unnecessary to write  $\hbar$  and c explicitly in formulas. It is customary to speak of mass (m), momentum (mc) and energy (mc<sup>2</sup>) all in terms of GeV and to measure length ( $\hbar$ /mc) and time ( $\hbar$ /mc<sup>2</sup>) in units of GeV<sup>-1</sup>:

Conversion factor	Ћ=c=1 units	Actual dimension
1kg = 5.61•10 <sup>26</sup> GeV	GeV	GeV/c <sup>2</sup>
$1m = 5.07 \cdot 10^{15}  GeV^{-1}$	GeV <sup>-1</sup>	Ћc/GeV
1s = 1.52•10 <sup>24</sup> GeV <sup>-1</sup>	GeV <sup>-1</sup>	Ћ/GeV



## Experimental aspects of Particle Physics

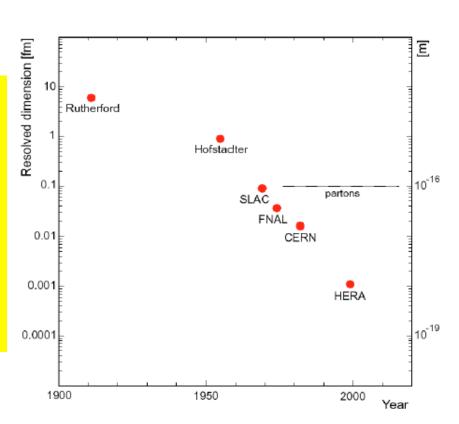
#### General comments



Rutherford (1911)

Hofstadter (1953)

Probing
smaller
distances
requires
larger
momentum
transfer:
probe ⇒
target



- HERA (1997) A particle of momentum p has an associated wavelength,  $\lambda$ , given by the de Broglie formula:  $\lambda = h/p$ 
  - Large (small) wavelength resolves large (small) structures
  - Manifestation of Heisenberg's uncertainty principle:  $\Delta p \cdot \Delta x \approx \hbar$  $\Rightarrow$  Probe particle needs a momentum of at least  $p \approx \hbar/\Delta x$  to resolve structures of size  $\Delta x$



## Experimental aspects of Particle Physics

## Type of experiments

- Scattering experiments:
  - Classical approach: 1. Scatter point-like probe onto object (target) whose structure should be investigated 2.
     Deduce information on the structure of the target from a measurement of the final-state (e.g. scattered probe) 3.
     Measure cross-section and compare to theoretical predictions
  - Generally: Collision of particles with subsequent detection of decay products and cross-section measurement
  - Higher energies are necessary to resolve smaller objects!
- Spectroscopy:
  - Experiments which aim to measure the decay products of an excited state, i.e. the measurement of the decay-rate and comparison to theoretical predictions
  - Higher energies are necessary to produce heavier excited states

#### Production of particles

- Cosmic rays:
  - Particle flux of secondary particles (e.g. muons) which are produced in the earth's atmosphere by high-energetic particles (e.g. protons) from outer space
  - Rate of a reasonable size detector is small and uncontrollable
- Nuclear reactors:
  - Production of decay particles from radioactive nuclear disintegration, e.g neutrons and neutrinos
- Particle accelerators:
  - Fixed target experiments in which an accelerated particle particle beam is directed onto a stationary target
  - Storage rings: Collide different accelerated particle beams (proton-proton, electron-proton and electron-positron)
  - Beneficial to operate in collider mode than in fixed target mode to achieve highest possible center-of-mass energy



# Experimental aspects of Particle Physics

#### Detection of particles

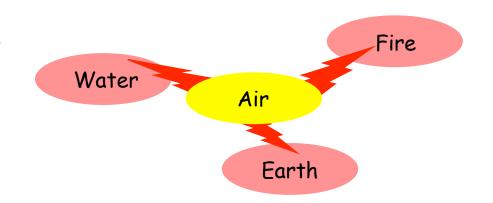
- Main idea:
  - Employ the reaction of energetic particle beams with matter which is part of our detector
  - Characteristic processes are the basis for particle detection devices such as:
    - Charged particles: Energy loss, Cherenkov radiation and Bremsstrahlung
    - Photons: Photoelectric effect, Compton scattering and pair production
- Types of today's detection systems:
  - Nuclear and particle physics detection systems are based on the above process which particles encounter while traversing through matter
  - Those detection systems can be classified by their basic task to measure the kinematics and properties of final-state particles:
    - 1. Position: Localize the hits of a charge particle and determine the decay point of a short-lived particle (Position sensitive detectors, e.g. silicon-strip detectors)
    - 2. Momentum: Determine the momentum of a charged particle in a magnetic field from a reconstruction of the curvature of a track

$$p_{\perp} \approx 0.3 \cdot B \cdot R \left[ \frac{\text{GeV/c}}{\text{Tm}} \right]$$

- 3. Energy: Deposition of energy in a localized detector volume (Calorimetry)
- 4. Mass: (Particle identification PID):  $m = \sqrt{E^2 p^2}$
- 5. Charge: Orientation of curvature of a charged particle track in a magnetic field



- The Greek natural philosophy
  - One of the first attempts to answer the question of what matter is made of was proposed by Anaximenes of Miletus:
  - Remarkable simple idea to decompose the world around us into basic finite components!
  - One problem: It's wrong!



#### Periodic table of elements

- Mendeleev's proposal: Truly quantitative and in agreement with experimental facts
- Regular arrangements: Stepping stone to nuclei and thus to protons and neutrons

1																	18
1A H																	VIIIA 2 He
Hydrogen	2											13	14	15	16	17	Helium
1.00794	IIA											IIIA	IVA	VA	VIA	VIIA	4.002602
3 Li			DED	IODIC	TADI	E OE	ette e	T TO A T	NITTO			5 B			8 0		10 Ne
Lithium	Beryllium		PER	IODIC	TABL	EOF	THEE	LEWIE	MIS			Boron	Carbon	Nitrogen		Fluorine	Neon
6.941	9.012182											10.811	12.0107	14.00674		18.9984032	20.1797
11 Na	12 Mg					_			40		40			15 P		17 CI	18 Ar
	Magnesium	3	4.	5	6	VIID	8	9 VIII	10	11		Aluminum		Phosph.	Sulfur	Chlorine	Argon
22.989770	24.3050	IIIB	IVB	VB	VIB	VIIB	06 -	viii	00 N	IB C	IIB	26.981538		30.973761	32.066	35.4527	39.948
19 K	20 Ca					25 Mn				29 Cu		31 Ga			34 Se	35 Br	36 Kr
Potassium 39.0983	Calcium 40.078	Scandium 44,955910	47.867	50.9415		Manganese 54.938049	Iron 55.845	Cobalt	Nickel 58.6934	Copper 63.546	Zine 65,39	69.723	72.61	74.92160	Selenium 78.96	Bromine 79.904	Krypton 83.80
37 Rb	38 Sr				42 Mo			58.933200 45 Rh							70.90 52 Te	79.904 53 I	54 Xe
Rubidium	Strontium		Zirconium		Molybd.	Technet.	Ruthen.		Palladium		Cadmium	Indium	Tin	Antimony	Tellurium	Iodine	Xenon
85.4678	87.62	88.90585	91.224	92.90638		(97.907215)		102.90550		107.8682		114.818	118.710	121.760	127.60	126.90447	131.29
55 Cs	56 Ba	57-71	72 Hf			75 Re					80 Hg			83 Bi	84 Po	85 At	86 Rn
Cesium	Barium	Lentha-	Hefnium	Tantalum	Tungsten	Rhenium	Osmium	Iridium	Platinum	Gold	Mercury	Thellium	Lead	Bismuth	Polonium	Astatine	Radon
132.90545	137.327	nides	178.49	180.9479	183.84	186.207	190.23	192.217	195.078	196.96655	200.59	204.3833	207.2	208.98038	(208.982415)	(209.987131)	(222.017570)
87 Fr	88 Ra	89-103	104 Rf	105 Db	106 Sg	107 Bh	108 Hs	109 Mt	110	111	112						
Francium	Radium	Actinides	Rutherford.				Hessium	Meitner.									
(223.019731)	(226.025402)		(261.1099)	(262.1144)	(263.1186)	(262.1231)	(265.1306)	(266.1378)	(269, 273)	(272)	(277)						

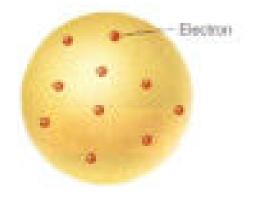
Lanthanide	57 La	58	Ce	59 F	r 60	Nd	61	Pm	62	Sm	63	Eυ	64	Gd	65	Тb	66	Dy	67 H	to l	68 E	r   69	) Tm	70	Yb	71	Lu
series	Lanthan.	Cer	ium	Preseody	m. Ne	odym.	Pro	meth.	Seme	rium	Euro	pium	Gad	olin.	Terb	oium	Dysp	ros.	Holmiu	m	Erbium	Т	hulium	Ytterl	bium	Lutet	ium
	138.9055	140	116	140.9076	5 1/	44.24	(144.9	12745)	150.	.36	151	.964	157	7.25	158.9	2534	162.	50	164.930	32	167.26	16	8.93421	173.	.04	174.9	967
																									_		
Actinide	89 Ac	90	Th	91 P	a 92	U	93	Np	94	Pu	95	Am	96	Cm	97	Bk	98	Cf	99	Es :	100 Fr	n   10	1 Md	102	No	103	Lr
series	Actinium	Tho	rium	Protaction	a. Ur	anium	Nept	unium	Plutor	nium	Ап	eric.	Cur	rium	Berke	elium	Califo	orn.	Einstein	n.	Fermium	M	endelev.	Nobel	lium	Lower	enc.
	/227 027747	0 232	1381	221 0250	0 23	0890	/227 C	40166	/244 OS	4107	1242 (	vs1929\	(247.0	20246	(247.0)	20200	/251 02	0E70\	/252 0030	273 6	257 00500	s) Voc	0.000427\	(250.1	011)	(262.1)	4000



- The Classical era (1897-1932) (1)
  - J. J. Thomson: Discovery of the electron
    - Cathode rays emitted by a hot filament are deflected by a magnet
       ⇒ Rays have a charge of negative value (Direction of curvature!)
    - Determination of the e/m ratio which turned out to be very large
    - Indirect evidence pointed to the case that the corpuscles are very light (Thomson called the charge electron!)



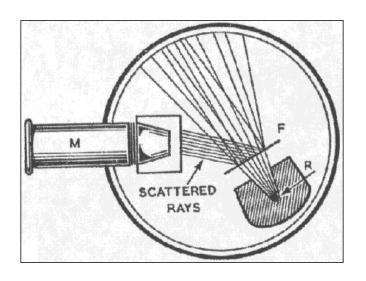
- Thomson atomic model:
  - Electrons are constituents of atoms
  - Electrons are suspended in a heavy, positively charged paste, like the plums in a pudding





- The Classical era (1897-1932) (2)
  - Rutherford and colleagues fired a beam of  $\alpha$ -particles (ionized He-atoms) into a thin sheet of gold foil
  - The majority of  $\alpha$ -particles passed through the gold foil completely undisturbed, but a few of them bounced off at angels larger than 90°
  - Conclusion (Rutherford's Atomic Model): 1911
    - The core of the atom is positively charged,
    - with virtually all of the atomic mass and
    - occupies only a tiny fraction of the volume of the atom (Estimated radius: 10<sup>-14</sup> m)
  - Atomic model by Bohr: 1914
    - Electrons circulate around the atomic nucleus on discrete orbits (This is in striking contrast to classical electrodynamics!)
    - Quantitative description of Hydrogen spectrum
    - Assumption that heavier elements consist of two or more protons failed!
  - Discovery of the neutron by Chadwick: 1932
  - Classical period of particle physics: electrons, protons and neutrons!







- The Photon (1900-1924)
  - Black-body radiation by Max Planck (1900):
    - Planck was attempting to explain the so-called blackbody spectrum for the electromagnetic radiation emitted by a hot object
    - Classical statistical mechanics predicted that the total power radiated should be infinite
    - Solution: Planck was able to explain experimental results if he assumed that the electromagnetic radiation is quantized, coming off a hot surface in little packages: E = hv
  - Photoelectric effect by Einstein (1905):
    - Quantization is a feature of electromagnetic field itself and has nothing to do with the emission mechanism
    - Photo-electric effect:  $E \le hv w$  (Electromagnetic radiation which strikes a metal surface allows to release electrons of energy E!)  $\Rightarrow$  Particle nature of light!
    - Millikan (1916): Clear experimental verification of Einstein's photoelectric effect!
  - Compton effect by Compton (1923):
    - Light that is scattered from a particle at rest is shifted in wavelength, according to ( $\lambda$  is the incident wavelength,  $\lambda'$  is the scattered wavelength,  $\theta$  is the scattering angle  $\theta$  and  $\lambda_c$  = h/mc is the Compton wavelength):  $\lambda' = \lambda + \lambda_c (1 \cos \theta)$
    - Result can be obtained if one treats light as a particle of zero mass with energy given by Planck's equation and apply the laws of conservation of (relativistic) energy and momentum
    - Light behaves like a particle: Photon

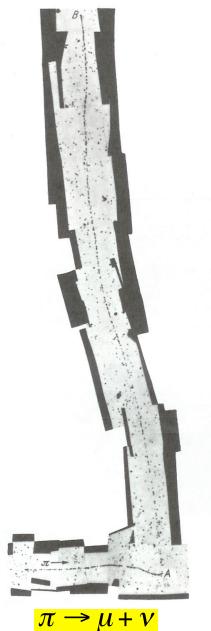


## Mesons (1934-1947)

- A force must exist inside the nucleus that binds the protons (and neutrons) together which is more powerful than the force of electrical repulsion
- The first significant theory of strong force was proposed by Yukawa in 1934:
  - Short-range: Mediated particle must be rather heavy
  - Yukawa estimated that its mass should be nearly 300 times the electron mass
  - Yukawa called the particle: meson ("middle-weight" compared to leptons and baryons)

### Experimental evidence:

- First indications by Anderson in 1937 were not conclusive
- Clear evidence: Powell et al. (1947): Photographic emulsion exposed to cosmic rays at high altitude



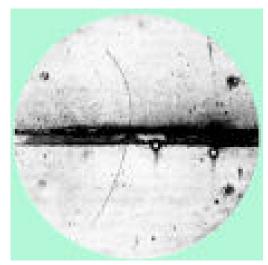


- Antiparticles (1930-1956)
  - Non-relativistic quantum mechanics (1923-1926)
  - Relativistic quantum mechanics: Dirac equation

$$\begin{array}{c} \bullet \quad \text{Non-relativistic quantum mechanics (1923-1926)} \\ \bullet \quad \text{Non-relativistic quantum mechanics: Dirac equation} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \psi^{(1)} = e^{-i(E/\hbar)t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ \psi^{(2)} = e^{-i(E/\hbar)t} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ \text{Electron (spin up)} \\ \psi^{(3)} = e^{+i(E/\hbar)t} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ \text{Positron (spin down)} \\ \psi^{(4)} = e^{+i(E/\hbar)t} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ \text{Positron (spin down)} \\ \psi^{(4)} = e^{+i(E/\hbar)t} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ \text{Positron (spin down)} \\ \end{array}$$

$$d\hbar\gamma^{\mu}\partial_{\mu}\psi-mc\psi=0$$
 Solution for free particle with p=0 (E=mc²):

- Electron and position appear on the same footing
- Profound and universal feature of quantum-field theory: For every particle there is an antiparticle
- Discovery of the positron (1932) by Anderson:
  - Photograph of a track left in a cloud chamber by a cosmic ray particle inside a magnetic field
  - In order to clarify weather this track refers to a downward moving negative or a upward moving positive charged particle, a lead plate was placed across the center of the chamber. The resulting curvature pointed to an upward moving positively charged particle!



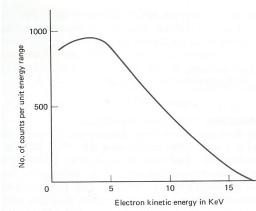
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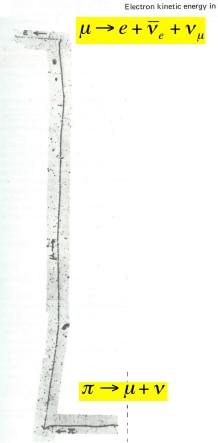


- Neutrinos (1930-1962)
  - In nuclear beta decay, a radioactive nucleus A is transformed into a slightly lighter nucleus B, with the emission of an electron:  $A \rightarrow B + e^{-}$
  - If the nuclear beta decay would occur only as such as two-body decay, then the energy of the outgoing electron would be kinematically determined:
  - However, experimental data of the electron kinetic energy of the beta decay spectrum of tritium shows that the energy of the electron varies considerably.
  - A solution was proposed by Pauli: Another particle was emitted along with the electron that caries off the missing energy!
  - Fermi incorporated Pauli's idea in a quantitative description of nuclear betadecay and called the particle neutrino:

$$n \rightarrow p^+ + e^- + \overline{\nu}$$

- Experimental verification: Savannah River nuclear reactor (1953):
  - Inverse beta-decay provided clear evidence:  $\overline{v}_e + p \rightarrow n + e^+$
- The existence of a second (muon-type) neutrino was established in 1962:
  - Using  $10^{14}$  anti-neutrinos from  $\pi^-$  decay, Lederman, Schwartz and Steinberger identified 29 instances of:
  - And no cases of:  $\overline{v}_u + p \rightarrow n + e^+$







- Strange particles (1947-1960)
  - By 1947, it seemed that several problems in particle physics were solved...!
  - Not for long...:
    - In December 1947,Rochester and Butler published the cloud chamber photograph which turned out to be the production of a neutral K-meson:  $K^0 \rightarrow \pi^+ + \pi^-$
    - In 1949, Powell published the decay of a charged Kaon:  $K^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ + \pi^+ + \pi^-$
    - In 1950, Anderson discovered the Lambda baryon:  $\Lambda \rightarrow p^+ + \pi^-$
    - All those particles seemed "strange" in the sense that they are produced copiously  $(10^{-23} \text{ s})$ , but they decay relatively slowly  $(10^{-10} \text{ s})!$
    - Gell-Mann assigned those particles a new quantum number called strangeness besides their respective charge:
      - Production of two strange particles:  $\pi^- + p^+ \rightarrow K^+ + \Sigma^-$

$$\pi^- + p^+ \longrightarrow K^0 + \Sigma^0$$

$$\pi^- + p^+ \rightarrow K^0 + \Lambda$$

- Assign strangeness quantum number S: S=+1 for  $\Sigma$  and S=-1 for  $\Lambda$  with S=0 for p,n and  $\pi$
- The garden of particle which seemed so tidy in 1947 grew into a real mess of a particle zoo by 1960. The "elementary particles" awaited a "Periodic Table"!
- Next: Classification according to underlying quantum numbers!